Research Bulletin

- Grading the Public Schools 67
- The Teacher Shortage Analyzed 68
- Scheduled Salaries Continue to Rise 75
- Teachers Help Themselves Through Credit Unions 78
- Teacher Tenure Laws 81
- Class Size in Elementary Schools . . . 86
- International Understanding 92

published by

RESEARCH DIVISION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Vol. 38, No. 3 October 1960

The NEA Research Bulletin

The NEA Research Bulletin
is published four times each year, in February, May, October, and December.

Copyright © 1960 by the National Education Association. All Rights Reserved.

Written permission must be obtained for reproduction of material from this bulletin.

Entered as second-class matter at the Post Office at Washington, D. C. Change of address notices and undeliverable copies should be sent to the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

Subscription and purchase
The NEA RESEARCH BULLETIN may be received regularly through a special subscription at $2 a year. Additional copies of this issue may be obtained at the following prices: single copy, 60¢; 2 to 9 copies, 10% discount; 10 or more copies, 20% discount. Orders not accompanied by remittance are subject to transportation charges. Make checks payable to the National Education Association, and address request to the Publication-Sales Section of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

Executive and editorial office
Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

EDUCATIONAL PRESS ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

president, NEA
CLARICE KLINE

executive secretary
WILLIAM G. CARR

assistant executive secretary for information services
FRANK W. HUBBARD

RESEARCH DIVISION

director
SAM M. LAMBERT

associate director
HAZEL DAVIS

assistant directors
VICTOR O. HORNBOSTEL
RAY C. MAUL
GLEN ROBINSON
MARTHA L. WARE

administrative assistant
VALDEANE RICE

publications editor
BEATRICE CRUMP LEE

research associates
JEAN M. FLANIGAN
DAVID H. BARNES

research assistants
DAVID IWAMOTO
EVELYN S. BIANCHI
FRIEDA S. SHAPIRO
LOIS R. KUZNETS
ANNA L. HOLCOMB

research technician
M. ALETHIA MAYES

chiefs of sections
FRANCES G. BRADLEY, Statistics
GRACE BRUBAKER, Information
WALLY ANNE SLITER, Typing
FRANCES H. REYNOLDS, Library

Grading the Public Schools

What state has the highest paid teachers? the most children to educate? the largest percent of college graduates?

THE ANSWERS to these and many other questions are only general indicators of the quality of the states' public schools. No single set of figures, and no combination of sets of figures, no matter how weighted, can rank the states on quality of public education.

Here are the top and bottom states, and the national averages on several measures:

	Top state	National average	Bottom state
The Pupils			
Percent of enrolled pupils attending daily, 1959-60	Hawaii, 94.0%	88.7%	Mississippi, 83.1%
Percent of school-age population enrolled in public schools, 1959-60	California, 97.4%	83.6%	Rhode Island, 69.2%
High-school graduates in 1957-58 as percent of eighth-grade enrollment in 1953-54	Wisconsin, 94.5%	65.6%	South Carolina, 47.0%
The Teachers			
Number of pupils per teacher, 1959	South Dakota, 18.1	25.8	Mississippi, 33.7
Average salary, 1959-60	California, $6,525	$5,025	Mississippi, $3,175
Total Population			
Percent of school age, 1958	Alaska, 30.8%	24.4%	New York, 21.5%
Percent of those of voting age voting in Presidential election, 1956	Idaho, 77.3%	60.4%	Mississippi, 22.1%
Adults			
Percent of Selective Service registrants disqualified by mental test, 1958	Montana, 3.9%	20.7%	South Carolina, 39.7%
Percent unable to read and write, 1950	Iowa, 0.9%	3.2%	Louisiana, 9.8%
Percent with at least 4 years of high school, 1950	Utah, 48.9%	33.3%	South Carolina, 18.6%
Percent with at least 4 years of college, 1950	California, 8.1%	6.0%	Arkansas, 3.1%
Public-School Finance			
Per-capita state expenditures for all public education, 1958	Delaware, $124	$43	Massachusetts, $18
Percent increase in current expenditures per pupil in ADA, 1949-50 to 1959-60	Mississippi, 162.5%	.....	Nebraska, 38.2%

For further details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Rankings of the States, 1960.* Research Report 1960-R9. Washington, D. C.: the Association, May 1960. 43 p. 75¢.

The Teacher Shortage Analyzed

THE 1960 CLASS of bachelor's degree graduates contained some 10,000 more potential teachers than did the class of 1959, but the nature of the teacher shortage remained the same—the 1960-61 school year opened with a shortage of 135,000 adequately prepared teachers. Here are some basic facts:

- The class of 1960 produced 129,295 newly eligible teachers, an increase of 8.3 percent over 1959.
- The new prospective *high-school* teachers totaled 80,465, up 12.4 percent, and the qualified new *elementary-school* teachers totaled 48,830, an increase of only 2.1 percent over 1959.
- Since elementary-school positions outnumber those in high school 8 to 5, the division of the total new supply between the two grade levels is out of balance, and the trend is toward a greater imbalance.
- The distribution of new candidates among the high-school teaching fields is also out of balance with the need, but the trend is favorable—a greater proportion of the new supply in the fields of most acute shortage.
- The percent of gain in new high-school teachers was greatest in mathematics, up 31.9 percent from a year ago. In science the gain was 26.4 percent; in foreign languages, 21.1 percent.
- Below-average increases in 1960 over the 1959 new supply were in social studies, 9.7 percent; music, 8.6 percent; men's physical education, 7.8 percent; home economics, 5.0 percent; and industrial arts, 4.0 percent.

The supply of teachers is out of balance with the demand by grade level and by high-school subject.

- Only about three-fourths of the new supply entered classroom service following college graduation.

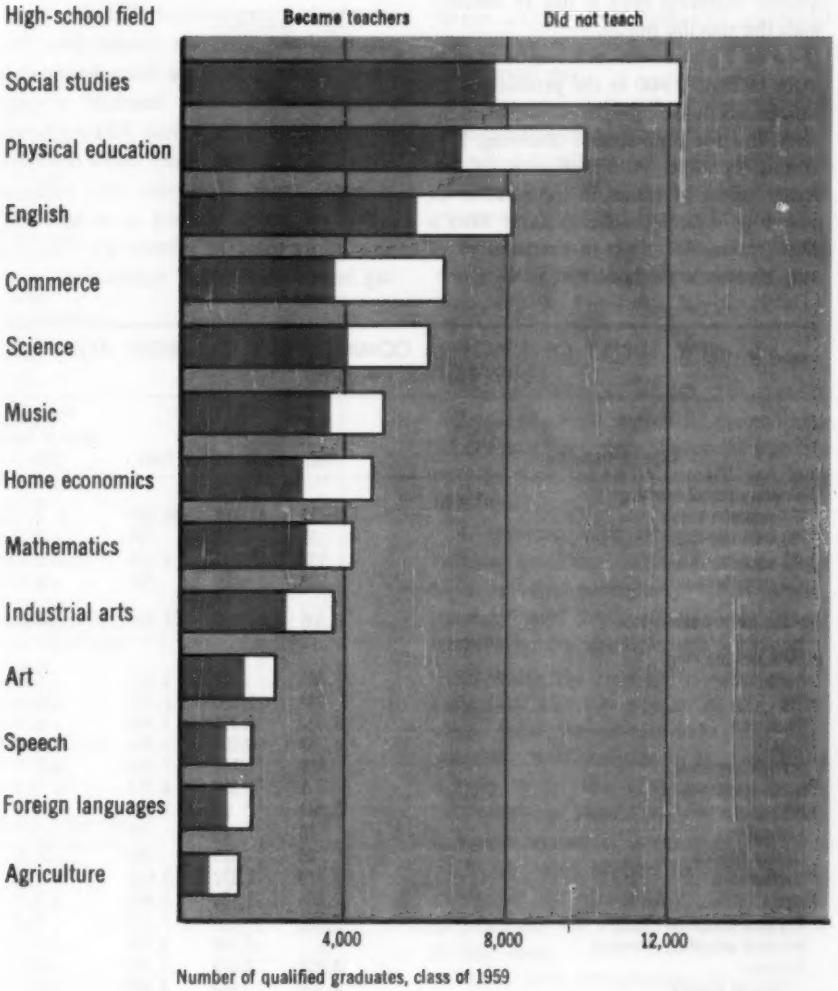
Since new teachers are employed in more than 40,000 local districts, and since local conditions vary from one district to another, each employing officer faces slightly different problems of teacher shortage. The coveted candidate carefully weighs all the factors involved in career satisfaction—the salary schedule, the teaching load, working conditions, promotion policies, educational facilities, housing, status in the community, and cultural opportunities. These are typical items for the local superintendent and his board to consider as they try to fill teaching vacancies.

The Supply in 1960

Table 1 provides a broad overview of current conditions. The 1960 graduating class included 6112 men and 42,718 women who have completed four years' preparation to teach in the elementary schools, an increase of only 2.1 percent over the number produced by the colleges in 1959. This modest increase did not match even a major fraction of the need to accommodate the increased enrollment in September.

The 1960 graduating class included 43,383 men and 37,082 women prepared to teach in high school, each with preparation in a subject-matter field.

TOO MANY QUALIFIED GRADUATES DO NOT ENTER TEACHING



NEA Research Division

First in numbers was social studies with 13,571 graduates, followed by English, science, men's physical education, commerce, mathematics, and music, each numbering more than 5000. The total increase in all high-school fields was 8880, or 12.4 percent, more than the 71,585 in the class of 1959.

This total production of 80,465 college graduates eligible to apply for high-school teaching certificates would have brought the total supply into close relation with the number of new high-school teachers employed, but, as recent national studies have shown, not more than about 65 percent of these grad-

uates enter teaching immediately after graduation. Besides, the supply in each specific teaching field is not in balance with the specific needs.

Table 2 shows the percent of change from 1959 to 1960 in the production of college graduates prepared for elementary- and for high-school teaching, separately by state. Although most of the states report increases in the number of new high-school teachers, more than a third report decreases in the number of new elementary-school teachers.

Better Distribution Needed

Each of the last three annual national reports has emphasized that the most urgent demand is no longer just for more teachers, but also for a *better distribution of the new teachers among the specific fields of need.* Although the schools desperately need more teachers in some types of service, the colleges right now are producing as many as or even more than the schools are employing in certain fields of instruction.

1—NEW SUPPLY OF TEACHERS COMING FROM COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN 1960 *

Type of preparation	Men	Women	Total	Percent change from 1959
Elementary-school teaching:				
120 semester hours	6,112	42,718	48,830	+ 2.1%
90 semester hours	39	210	249	- 7.8
60 semester hours	332	2,897	3,229	- 0.4
30 semester hours	23	236	259	-34.9
Elementary-school total	6,506	46,061	52,567	+ 1.6
High-school teaching:				
Agriculture	1,485	17	1,502	- 0.7
Art	948	1,760	2,708	+12.6
Commerce	3,022	4,394	7,416	+14.4
English	2,768	6,656	9,424	+15.0
Foreign languages	729	1,471	2,200	+21.1
Home economics	1	4,957	4,958	+ 5.0
Industrial arts	3,893	92	3,985	+ 4.0
Journalism	28	48	76	+ 2.7
Library science	43	325	368	-18.8
Mathematics	3,778	1,872	5,650	+31.9
Music	2,536	2,931	5,467	+ 8.6
Physical education (Men)	7,753	....	7,753	+ 7.8
Physical education (Women)	....	3,186	3,186	+13.6
Science	5,528	2,269	7,797	+26.4
General science	2,540	953	3,493	+29.5
Biology	1,850	952	2,802	+17.6
Chemistry	687	270	957	+38.1
Physics	451	94	545	+38.3
Social studies	8,986	4,585	13,571	+ 9.7
Speech	723	1,201	1,924	+ 5.8
Other	1,162	1,318	2,480	+ 2.0
High-school total	43,383	37,082	80,465	+12.4
Grand total (college graduates only)	49,495	79,800	129,295	+ 8.3

* Based on reports from all institutions in all 50 states and the District of Columbia in which students may pursue the courses required for the standard teaching certificate.

2—CHANGE IN SUPPLY OF NEW QUALIFIED TEACHERS, 1959 TO 1960 *

State	Elementary school	High school
U. S. Total	+ 2.1%	+12.4%
Alabama	- 5.4	+24.9
Alaska	+41.7	+21.4
Arizona	+ 2.2	+17.9
Arkansas	- 1.8	+12.5
California	+ 0.1	-15.6
Colorado	+ 4.0	+ 9.5
Connecticut	+13.5	- 4.2
Delaware	-10.1	+23.7
District of Columbia	+32.0	+ 9.2
Florida	- 7.3	+15.8
Georgia (White)	+ 3.1	+14.8
Georgia (Negro)	- 9.2	+32.3
Hawaii	+35.8	+33.0
Idaho	- 6.2	+21.1
Illinois	+ 0.8	+16.7
Indiana	+16.8	+ 7.2
Iowa	+ 3.0	+ 7.5
Kansas	- 4.5	+19.7
Kentucky	-11.9	+13.1
Louisiana	+21.4	+15.5
Maine	-20.5	+ 1.2
Maryland	+15.6	+12.9
Massachusetts	+ 5.2	+18.9
Michigan	- 0.1	+16.6
Minnesota	- 4.4	+14.4
Mississippi (White)	+21.7	+31.2
Mississippi (Negro)	+58.4	+15.4
Missouri	-27.8	+ 5.6
Montana	-28.0	+23.1
Nebraska	+ 6.3	+ 4.2
Nevada	+70.7	- 2.9
New Hampshire	- 8.9	+11.3
New Jersey	+12.4	+13.1
New Mexico	+ 0.9	- 2.2
New York	+ 6.1	+30.8
North Carolina (White)	- 2.2	+ 9.2
North Carolina (Negro)	+ 1.8	+16.2
North Dakota	+46.5	+33.0
Ohio	+ 5.1	+14.1
Oklahoma	+20.4	+22.1
Oregon	+21.4	+12.0
Pennsylvania	- 2.4	+ 6.4
Rhode Island	+31.3	+30.3
South Carolina (White)	- 3.3	+14.6
South Carolina (Negro)	+27.4	+ 2.7
South Dakota	- 2.1	+ 5.7
Tennessee	- 7.5	+20.1
Texas	+ 2.7	+15.7
Utah	+ 3.2	+39.6
Vermont	+10.8	- 5.8
Virginia	-14.8	+ 2.9
Washington	- 5.0	+ 2.6
West Virginia	-14.9	+20.3
Wisconsin	- 1.3	+ 7.0
Wyoming	+24.6	+18.8

* Excludes those without degrees.

Elementary-School Needs Greatest

Without question, the greatest need in the years ahead will be for a much larger supply of adequately prepared elementary-school teachers. These five facts stand out:

1. About one-fourth of the 837,000 elementary-school teachers now in service are not college graduates, and some of these 200,000 lack even two years of preparation beyond high school.

2. There are eight elementary- for every five high-school teaching positions, but the 1960 new supply reverses this ratio—80,000 high-school to just under 50,000 potential elementary-school teaching candidates.

3. Of the new supply of elementary-school teachers, only about 82 percent may be expected to be actually teaching this fall.

4. Overcrowding of classrooms and half-day sessions—practices widely used to meet the emergency in both elementary and high schools—are most harmful to the small, immature child.

5. While the *rate of increase* in enrollments will be greater at the high-school level, the *annual increase in total numbers* will continue to fall most heavily upon the elementary schools. In September 1960, only the first grade felt the impact of 4 or more million births six years earlier. In 1965, *all six grades* of the elementary schools must be prepared for a load of more than 4 million each.

These facts overshadow all others as the schools compete in the manpower market for competent personnel. Certainly the qualifications of the typical elementary-school teacher have been improved during the past decade, but the greatest task ahead is to undergird this part of the public school system through a vast expansion in the number of available qualified teachers. And the trend is not encouraging.

The High-School Problem

The total new supply of eligible high-school candidates about equals the total number the high schools will employ. But these limiting factors must be considered:

1. Certain courses are not offered through lack of teachers. Many high schools do not provide one or more of the specialized educational services today's conditions justify.

2. Many college students have other occupational interests and elect courses required for the teaching certificate only as insurance against the lack of opportunity to enter the occupation of first choice immediately after graduation. About one-third of the graduating seniors qualified to teach in high school did not apply for teaching positions. The realistic new supply—those who can be recruited by prevailing salaries and working conditions—ranges by subject from 46 to 79 percent of the number who become eligible.

3. Many graduating college seniors are interested in teaching positions only in school districts paying the best salaries, maintaining the best working conditions, and offering the most attractive cultural opportunities.

A vacancy is always at a specific location, and therefore a supply of new graduates equal to the number of vacancies does not necessarily mean that "supply equals demand." Many thousands of districts may be in seriously short supply while a small number of the most favored districts may enjoy a comfortable oversupply of excellently qualified applicants.

4. In some colleges the selective process has not been as rigorous as it should have been. Some students have been allowed to complete the formal requirements for teaching certificates despite inability to adjust to the requirements for success in the classroom. Some lack the intellectual curiosity and ability necessary for sustained professional growth, and some lack the personal qualities needed to maintain understanding relationships with students.

5. Finally is the *lack of distribution* of potential high-school teachers among the teaching fields *according to the field-by-field needs*. If the high schools employ, let us say, 75,000 new teachers, it means little or nothing that the colleges produced 75,000 graduates eligible for the teaching certificate *unless* the proportion of the new graduates in a given field equals the proportion of the total need which that field requires.

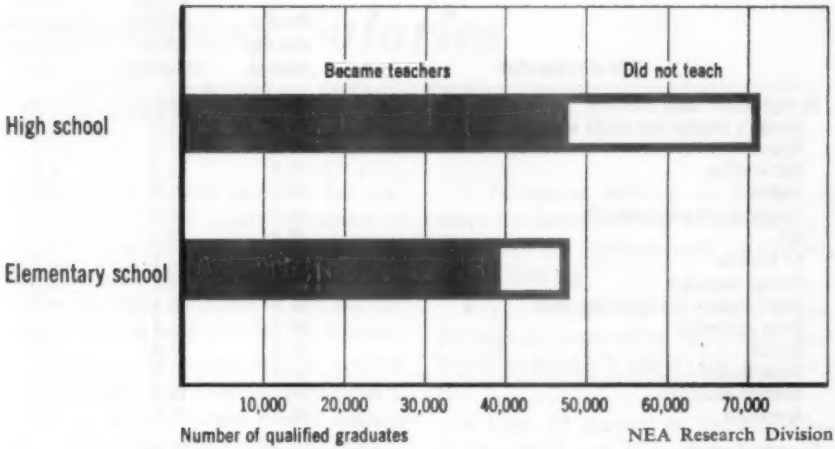
Realistic Counseling Needed

It is not proper for the high-school counselor to dictate to a student in the matter of choosing a life occupation.

3—DISTRIBUTION OF POTENTIAL TEACHERS AND TEACHERS IN SERVICE COMPARED

High-school teaching field	All high-school teachers in service in 1955–56	New supply in 1950	New supply in 1960
English	15.5%	12.3%	11.7%
Mathematics	12.9	5.3	7.0
Sciences	12.6	10.5	9.7
Social studies	11.7	17.7	16.9
Business education	11.7	8.3	9.2
Industrial and vocational education	6.3	5.6	5.0
Foreign languages	5.2	2.5	2.7
Home economics	4.8	5.6	6.2
Health and physical education			
Men	2.1	12.2	9.6
Women	2.3	3.7	3.9
Agriculture	2.8	3.8	1.9
Music	2.7	6.1	6.8
Art	1.2	2.6	3.4
Other	8.2	3.8	6.0
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

ONLY 7 IN 10 QUALIFIED GRADUATES OF CLASS OF 1959 ENTERED TEACHING



But just as certainly it is the responsibility of the counselor to see that each student knows and understands the significance of all available facts.

Too often the student with a natural interest in teaching does not know how many teachers of a given subject are needed, or how many students are preparing for that field. Too often the student will respond to the encouragement of an enthusiastic professor without seeing the need for a balanced program of preparation, or for a second major or a strong minor in an associated field. Too often the graduate is disappointed because his concentration in one field does not fit him for vacancies open to beginners who often must accept assignments in two or more fields.

The counselor, therefore, needs to see that each student understands the overriding need for elementary-school teachers and the distribution of potential high-school teachers among the teaching fields. Table 3 shows the nationwide situation.

The foregoing figures oversimplify the situation because they show each teacher in only one field. They go far, however, to show that in 10 years only a little progress has been made in what should be a serious effort to bring into balance the supply and the probable demand in each high-school teaching field.

Occupations of Potential Teachers

New supply of teachers means the most recent class of college seniors who have met requirements for teaching certificates. But the public schools were able to induct into classroom service only 72.5 percent of the 119,421 newly qualified graduates of 1959. As in previous years, the percent of potential elementary-school teachers who entered service was highest, at 82.3, but only 66.4 percent of those prepared for high-school teaching took teaching positions. See Table 4.

In the high-school field almost 4 of every 5 women prepared in physical and health education, for example, go immediately into school service, and

4—POTENTIAL TEACHERS ENTERING TEACHING, ENTERING OTHER OCCUPATIONS, AND CONTINUING ADVANCED STUDY

Field of preparation	Percent entering teaching	Percent entering other occupations	Percent continuing advanced study
All high-school fields combined	66.4%	8.1%	6.0%
Women's physical and health education	78.9	3.0	3.6
Music	74.0	3.5	6.4
Mathematics	73.9	6.8	5.5
English	71.3	4.6	6.1
Industrial and vocational arts	69.0	8.8	3.7
Art	68.4	3.5	4.5
All sciences	66.5	7.1	8.5
Foreign languages	65.6	4.7	13.1
Men's physical and health education	65.5	6.4	5.8
Home economics	64.7	11.0	2.5
Speech	63.9	7.4	8.6
Social studies	62.8	7.3	7.7
Business education	58.7	18.0	3.5
Agriculture	46.3	21.2	7.3
Elementary school	82.3%	1.5%	1.3%
Total "new supply"	72.5%	5.5%	4.2%

only 3 percent enter other gainful occupations and scarcely any more continue formal study. On the other hand, just 2 of every 3 potential science teachers enter teaching, 7.1 percent enter other occupations at once, and 8.5 percent go on with advanced study.

In addition, military service takes at least 6 percent of the men, and homemaking claims an equal percent of the women. For about 10 percent the occupations were not known.

Annual Demand for New Teachers

The number of prospective teachers to come from the colleges has ranged from a high of 115,477 in 1950 to a low of 85,801 in 1954 and now up to an all-time high of 129,295 in 1960. Year-by-year demand, on the other hand, cannot be so exactly computed, because the acceptable standards of public education vary so widely from district to district. But if every child is to be provided a fair educational opportunity, these five categories of need can be estimated as of September 1960:

To replace those leaving	110,000
To serve increased enrollments	30,000
To relieve overcrowding and eliminate half-day sessions	30,000
To give instruction and services not now provided	20,000
To replace the unprepared	40,000
Total needed	230,000

The college graduating class, of which about 73 percent sought teaching positions, supplied some 95,000. The resulting shortage of 135,000 could be met only by drawing on the general population for new teachers of uncertain qualifications.

For details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1960.* Research Report 1960-R7. Washington, D. C.: the Association, April 1960. 48 p. $1.

Experienced teachers are getting bigger increases than beginners

Scheduled Salaries Continue To Rise

THE NEA RESEARCH DIVISION has analyzed the 1960-61 salary schedules of 147 of the school districts with 100,000 or more population. Summaries of these schedules were recorded by the population of the school districts as follows:

Group I, 26 urban school districts 500,000 and over in population

Group II, 121 urban school districts 100,000 to 499,999 in population.

The current figures are *preliminary*. Later reports will include school districts added to Groups I and II on the basis of the 1960 Census.

Some facts about the 1960-61 schedules are shown below, and some comparisons with 1959-60 are made.

- Both minimum and maximum salaries reach higher median levels this year than last. The higher percents of increase are scheduled for experienced rather than for beginning teachers, in contrast to trends in certain earlier years.
- The medians of minimum salaries for teachers with bachelor's degrees are $4375 in Group I and $4250 in Group II.
- Of the 147 districts, 144 also reported in 1959-60. Two-thirds of the schedules in Groups I and II increased the bachelor's degree minimum salary since 1959-60, but the increase in the medians of minimum salaries is only slightly over 3 percent.
- Increases of $500 or more in the minimum salary are scheduled by almost 8 percent of the districts.
- Minimum salaries of $4600 or more for bachelor's degree teachers are scheduled in approximately one-fourth of the districts.
- The median top maximum salary, for highest preparation recognized, was $7575 in Group I and $7610 in Group II.
- Over 65 percent of the schedules in Groups I and II increased the top maximum salary since 1959-60. The increase in the medians of top maximum salaries is nearly 7 percent in both groups.

Annual Increments

In the typical schedule in either Group I or Group II, the teacher who begins teaching with the bachelor's degree will reach the maximum of his salary class in 12 annual increment steps.

The median increment is $200 in both Group I and Group II for both the B.A. and the M.A. classifications.

Uniform increments are the pattern in 40 percent of the Group I districts and in 38 percent of the Group II districts.

Administrative Provisions

More than 73 percent of the districts provided separate salary classes to recognize preparation above the master's degree level.

Special salary maximums to recognize superior service are provided in 3.8 percent of the Group I schedules

1—SALARY SCHEDULE FIGURES IN 25 LARGEST URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS REPORTING FOR 1960-61

School district	Estimated number of pupils in ADM 1959–60	Scheduled salaries for classroom teachers, 1960–61		
		Minimum with B.A. degree	Maximum with M.A. degree[a]	Top maximum[a]
New York, N. Y.	981,000	$4,800	$8,700	$9,100
Los Angeles, Calif.	494,312	4,900	7,880	9,500
Chicago, Ill.	452,080[b]	5,000	7,750	8,750
			(8,750)	(9,750)
Detroit, Mich.	270,748	4,800	7,800	8,700
			(7,950)	(8,850)
Philadelphia, Pa. (Calendar year 1961)	238,400	4,200	7,200	7,200
Houston, Texas	167,843	4,000	6,200	6,200
Baltimore, Md.	163,470	4,500	7,500	7,750
Dade Co., Fla. (P. O., Miami)	156,000	4,200	7,900	8,200
			(8,200)	(8,500)
State of Hawaii (including Honolulu)	140,207	4,020	6,300	6,300
Cleveland, Ohio[c]	132,242	4,500	8,800	8,800
			(9,700)	(9,700)
Dallas, Texas	129,034	4,100	6,350	6,650
Washington, D. C.	114,295	4,800	7,633	7,848
Milwaukee, Wis. (Calendar year 1960)	102,438	4,550	7,500	8,100
St. Louis, Mo.	101,669[b]	4,600	7,200	7,400
San Diego, Calif.	96,305	4,850	8,150	9,400
Memphis, Tenn.	96,021	3,600	6,300	6,600
Atlanta, Ga.	95,689	4,008	6,864	6,864
Duval Co., Fla. (P. O., Jacksonville)	94,268	3,500	5,794	6,336
Orleans Parish, La. (P. O., New Orleans)	90,369	3,600	6,700	7,000
Seattle, Wash.	87,221	4,200	6,800	7,800
San Francisco, Calif.	86,786	5,060	8,520	9,180
Boston, Mass.	86,418	4,020	6,900	6,900
Denver, Colo.	83,525	4,350	7,200	7,875
Baltimore Co., Md. (P. O., Towson)	81,528	4,500	8,040	9,120
Indianapolis, Ind.	81,361	4,460	7,540	8,240

[a] Salaries in parens are extended-service maximums.

[b] 1958–59 average daily membership.

[c] Schedule shown for Cleveland not fully in effect; 1960–61 minimum is $100 lower and maximum is $900 lower.

NOTE:

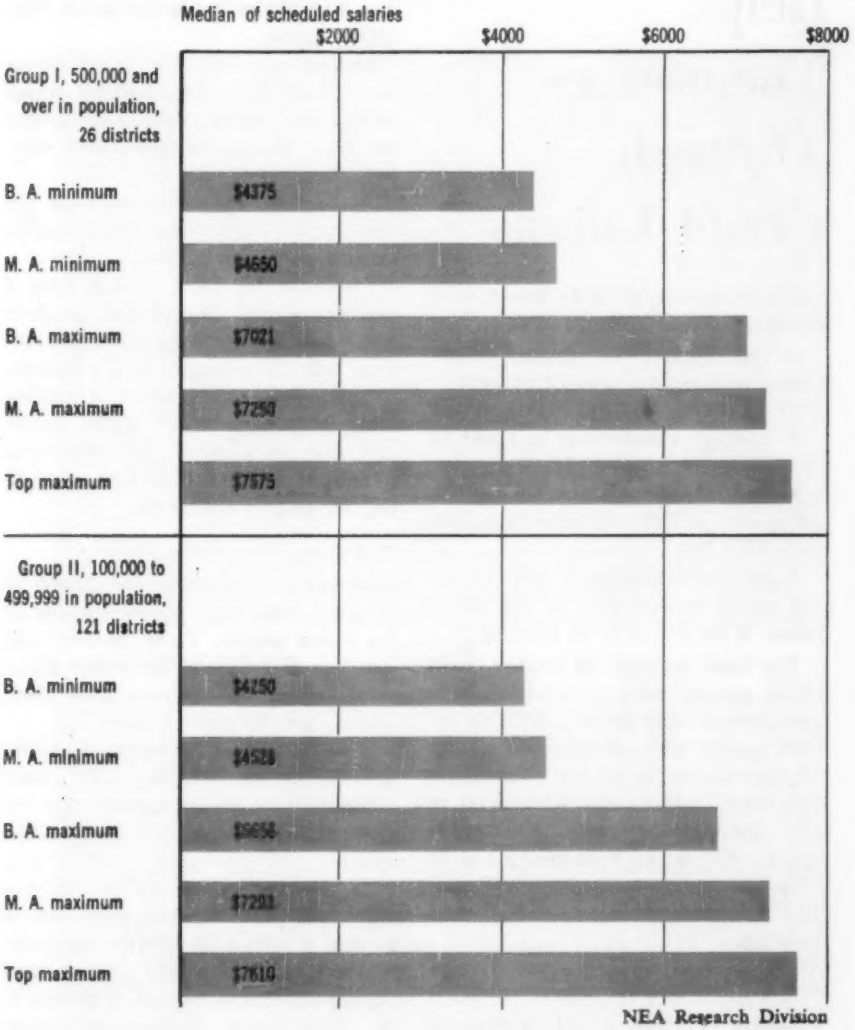
Medians and other summary data in the accompanying article include the 1959–60 schedules for Dallas, Washington, and Boston. Last-minute information has been received from these cities, however, and is shown in part above.

The 1960–61 schedule for Dallas, shown above, provides the same minimum salary as in 1959–60. Maximum salaries, however, are $150 higher than were scheduled last year.

The 1960–61 schedule for Washington, shown above, was adopted by Act of Congress in the closing days of the recent session, to become effective as of September 1, 1960. The new schedule is $300 above the former schedule at the minimum. It is 7½ percent higher at the maximum; there was an increase of $533 in the master's degree maximum and $548 in the top maximum.

The schedule for Boston, shown above, was in effect at the opening of school in September 1960, and is the same as in 1959–60. The School Committee, however, has adopted a new schedule, effective December 1, 1960, subject to approval by municipal authority, which will raise the scheduled minimum salary by $740 and the scheduled maximum salaries by $480. Only $240 will be added to present salaries on December 1.

SCHEDULED SALARIES, LARGE URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS, 1960-61 (PRELIMINARY)



and in 5.0 percent of the Group II schedules. An increase in this practice as compared with last year reflects a state-wide requirement in Florida.

About 27 percent of the Group I districts and 41 percent of the Group II districts require teachers to submit evidence of periodic professional growth in order to progress normally on the salary schedule.

For details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Salary Schedules, Classroom Teachers, Urban Districts 100,000 and Over in Population, 1960-61.* Research Report 1960-R11. Public-School Salaries Series. Washington, D. C.: the Association, October 1960. 50¢.

Teachers Help Themselves Through Credit Unions

SINCE 1938, teacher credit unions have shown growth in most aspects:

- The number of teacher credit unions reported has grown from 471 in 1938 to 1266 at the end of May 1960.
- Average membership was 183 in 1938; in 1959 it was 816.
- In 1938, average assets per credit union were $19,276; 21 years later, they were $451,388.
- Average amount on loan at the end of 1938 was $15,370 per credit union; at the end of 1958, $362,057.

The latest statistics on teacher credit union growth were gathered from a questionnaire sent in May 1959 to the 1202 school and college credit unions on the mailing list of the NEA Committee on Credit Unions. Responding to this questionnaire were 408 credit unions: 336, or 82.4 percent, made up of public-school teachers, and 72, or 17.6 percent, organized to serve college faculties.

Background and Finances

Nearly one-half, or 47 percent, of the total group of credit unions were organized before 1950; 26.5 percent were organized between 1950 and 1954; another 26.5 percent were organized in 1955 or later.

Sixty-four percent of the credit unions had fewer than 500 members; the median membership was 302. No credit union reporting $1 million or more in assets had fewer than 1000 members; all credit unions with less than $10,000 in assets had fewer than 200 members.

Median assets of school credit unions were $100,783; for college credit unions, the median was $87,150. For the total group, median assets were $97,990.

Average assets per member of the credit union were $554; average out on loan per member was $443.

Dividends for 1958 ranged from 6 percent to zero. The median dividend paid by school credit unions was 4 percent, and the average was 3.7 percent.

The average credit union (excluding some 20 percent of the credit unions that paid no salaries) spent $6456 in salaries in 1958. The median expenditure for salaries was $1500.

Operating Procedures

Monthly meetings of the board of directors were held by 97 percent of the credit unions. Forty percent held meetings of the credit committee whenever needed; 32 percent held them weekly; and 13 percent, daily.

Sixty percent of the credit unions received office space rent-free from school authorities; 21 percent reported that the credit union owned or rented office space.

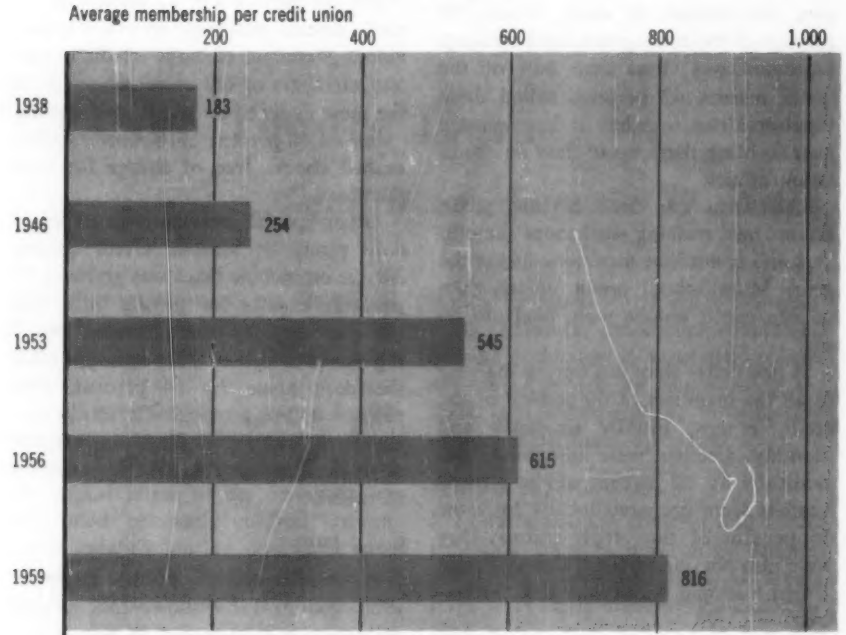
Of the total group, 95 percent provided loan protection insurance, and 76 percent provided life-savings insurance.

About one-half, or 51 percent, used payroll deductions for adding savings to the credit union. Forty-seven percent used payroll deductions for paying off loans to the credit union.

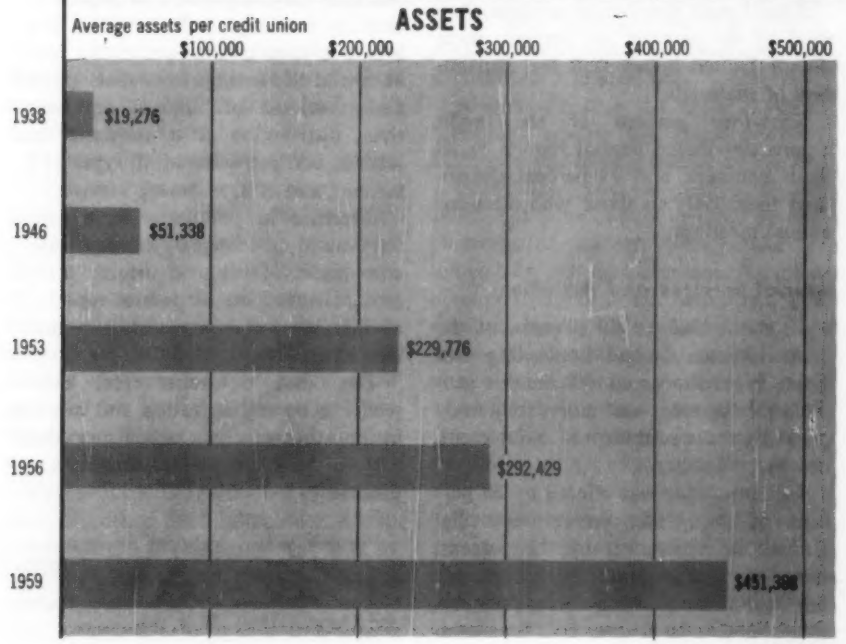
Action on loan applications was taken promptly (in a day) by 85 percent of the credit unions. Less than 50 percent of all the credit unions used a loan collection agency, although 82 percent of the largest credit unions did so.

TWENTY-ONE YEARS OF PROGRESS

MEMBERSHIP



ASSETS



NEA Research Division

Interpretation and Promotion

To help obtain new members and to give information in each school, 68 percent of the total group used building representatives. Less than half of the credit unions, 42 percent, called these representatives together at least once a year to bring them up to date on credit union affairs.

Less than one-third of the credit unions held training workshops for officers and committee members during the year. More school credit unions than college credit unions were likely to do so.

A newsletter went out during the year to all the members of 60 percent of the credit unions, usually quarterly and monthly. Leaflets were distributed periodically by 80 percent of the groups. Leaflets were prepared locally by some 66 percent of the credit unions; they were also obtained from CUNA (Credit Union National Association) by 80 percent.

School-mail distribution systems were used by 86 percent; 48 percent made use of United States mail for distribution of materials.

Sixty-four percent of the credit unions distributed annual reports to all their members, and 33 percent distributed them only to those who attended annual meetings.

Special Services and Activities

In about half, or 49 percent, of the credit unions, budget counseling was given by credit union officers. In general, this service was more frequently given by the wealthier and older credit unions.

Life insurance was offered by 29 percent of the credit unions reporting; automobile insurance, by 23 percent; major medical insurance, by 18 percent; fire insurance, by 15 percent; and personal liability insurance, by 14 percent. Fifty-nine percent of the credit unions provided free notary service.

For the members of 27 percent of the credit unions, mortgage service was provided. Members of large credit unions and members of old credit unions were the most likely to be offered this service.

About 46 percent of the credit unions cashed checks free of charge for their members.

Other special services were provided only rarely by teacher credit unions. Advice on income taxes was given by 17 percent. Checks for paying bills were furnished by 22 percent. Personal bonding was provided by 18 percent; spread-the-check plans, by 14 percent. Five percent or less provided Christmas saving plans, or sold U. S. Savings Bonds or American Express checks to their members.

Since 1952

A comparison of studies made in 1952 and in 1959 shows that several practices have increased in popularity: monthly meetings of the board of directors, provision of loan protection insurance and life-savings insurance, payroll deduction, use of building representatives, distribution of a newsletter and leaflets, and provision of all types of insurance and of free notary service.

Decrease in popularity is apparent for monthly meetings of the supervisory committee, advising on income tax returns, distribution of annual reports to all members, and provision of training workshops.

The trend in teacher credit unions seems to be regularization and increase in the range of credit union procedures and services, as well as financial expansion.

For details see: National Education Association, Committee on Credit Unions. *Practices and Finances of Teacher Credit Unions.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, August 1960. 32 p. 50¢.

Teacher Tenure Laws

benefit teachers in 37 states

TENURE LAWS contribute significantly to the security of employment of classroom teachers, principals, and other school personnel.

The basic purpose of tenure legislation is to protect teachers who have successfully completed their probationary period from unjust dismissal for unfounded personal, political, or religious reasons, during competent performance of their duties and good behavior. At the same time, these laws provide for orderly dismissal from the school system of teachers who are clearly incompetent professionally, or whose conduct is proven to be inimical to the best interests of the schools and the pupils they serve.

Contrary to some concepts, tenure laws do not guarantee permanent employment or absolute rights to their positions to those school employees who have acquired tenure status. Rather, these laws require school boards to follow prescribed procedures before removing or dismissing employees, and provide that termination of employment be based on legally sufficient grounds. Moreover, legislatures may amend or even repeal tenure laws.

Except for a 1939 decision of the Supreme Court of the United States which construed the Indiana tenure statute as a contractual type law, the rights which tenure laws confer on teachers have not been considered to be contractual in nature by courts which faced this question. Therefore, subsequent enactments reflecting changes in legislative policies are not regarded as contravening the federal Constitutional prohibition against impairment of contracts.

What Is a Tenure Law?

Laws containing contract and tenure provisions have been variously denominated in the several states as tenure laws, continuing contract laws, continuing status, civil service, or fair dismissal laws. However, the title given a particular law affords no indication that it is indeed a tenure law.

How is a tenure law to be defined? Measured against the aforementioned objectives underlying tenure legislation, a tenure law may be defined as one which (a) provides for continuing employment of teachers who, under its terms, have acquired permanent, tenure, or continuing contract status; and (b) requires boards to comply with prescribed procedural provisions of notice, statement of charges, and right to a hearing before a tenure teacher can be dismissed, or before nonrenewal of the teacher's contract of employment can be effective.

To be sure, some of the tenure laws are so drafted as to better safeguard teachers against unfair dismissal than others also falling within the definition just given. Those laws which contain

specific provisions with respect to dismissal both during and at the end of the school year or the contract term, and which detail as well the causes for discharge, and the step-by-step procedures to be observed when dismissal of a teacher is contemplated, not only make it clear to all concerned what the teacher's rights are, but often avoid the necessity of resorting to the courts for an interpretation of the law.

To be differentiated from the tenure law is another kind of law in force in some states—the continuing contract law of the spring notification type. Such a law lacks the essential provisions of notice, statement of charges, and right of hearing before a teacher's employment can be terminated; it requires only that the teacher be given advance notice of nonrenewal of his employment contract, and ordinarily no reasons need be furnished. Under statutory provisions of this kind, the teaching contract is automatically renewed for the ensuing school year unless notice to the contrary is received by a specified date.

At the start of the 1960-61 school year, tenure laws were in effect in 37 states, either on a state-wide basis, or in certain designated areas only. Teachers in the District of Columbia had tenure rights also. Continuing contract laws of the spring notification type, or annual or long-term contract provisions prevailed in the remaining 13 states. The kind of law in force in each state is given in the table. Here is what a summary of this information shows:

- Twenty-five states have tenure laws which cover teachers eligible for the benefits conferred in all areas of the state, without exception. In a number of these state-wide tenure laws, it is not uncommon to find different provisions for school districts of different sizes. And in two of the 25 states, special local tenure laws have been enacted for certain jurisdictions—in Connecticut, for each of its principal cities, and in Florida, for each of four counties.
- In addition to the 25 states whose tenure laws must be followed in all areas, six states qualify to some extent the state-wide applicability of their tenure provisions. In this group is Michigan, whose statute books have two different tenure laws, both subject to local adoption, one by the voters, the other by the local school board. In California and Colorado, small school districts may, but need not, use tenure provisions. Conversely, Illinois and New York exclude small districts from the operation of their tenure laws, while Indiana excepts its township schools.
- In six states, tenure laws cover teachers in certain places only. As to the nontenure areas in these states, generally simple spring notification provisions or annual contracts may control.
- Of the 13 states without tenure laws, five have mandatory state-wide continuing contract laws of the spring notification type. In a sixth state, Virginia, pursuant to state-board regulations, local school boards may, subject to the consent and approval of the state board, enter into contracts with teachers which provide for automatic renewal if neither party gives notice of termination before April 1. Enactments providing for annual or long-term contracts are found in the other seven states.

Main Provisions

Tenure laws share certain common characteristics in their essential aspects, although there are variations from state to state. These are the salient provisions:

Employees covered—In general, tenure laws include not only classroom teachers, but also supervisors, principals, and other school personnel. The types of employees covered are specifically mentioned in many laws, while the

TYPE OF STATE TENURE OR CONTRACT PROVISIONS IN EFFECT

States with Tenure Laws

State-wide

Alabama	Maine
Alaska	Maryland
Arizona	Massachusetts
California[a]	Michigan[a]
Colorado[a]	Minnesota
Connecticut[b]	Montana
Delaware	New Hampshire
District of Columbia	New Jersey
Florida[b]	New York[c]
Hawaii	New Mexico
Idaho	Ohio
Illinois[c]	Pennsylvania
Indiana[c]	Rhode Island
Iowa	Tennessee
Kentucky	Washington
Louisiana	West Virginia

In Certain Places Only[d]

Georgia	Nebraska
Kansas	Oregon
Missouri	Wisconsin

States Without Tenure Laws

State-wide Continuing Contract of Spring Notification Type

Arkansas
Nevada
North Dakota
Oklahoma
South Dakota
Virginia (subject to local adoption)

Annual or Long-Term Contracts

Mississippi
North Carolina
South Carolina
Texas
Utah
Vermont
Wyoming

[a] Subject to local adoption in small districts in California and Colorado; in Michigan, subject to local adoption throughout the state.

[b] Separate local tenure laws govern certain cities or counties.

[c] Illinois and New York exclude small districts; Indiana excludes township schools. In the nontenure areas in Illinois and Indiana, continuing contract provisions of the spring notification type apply.

[d] In nontenure areas in Georgia and Kansas, annual contracts are the usual practice; nontenure areas in Missouri, Nebraska, Oregon, and Wisconsin are controlled by continuing contract laws of the spring notification type.

language in some is more general, covering all certificated school employees. A few statutes extend tenure status to classroom teachers alone, or only to teachers and principals. Twelve laws explicitly include superintendents, but in five others, they are definitely excluded.

Probationary period—All but two tenure laws require that a probationary period be served. Iowa and Washington have no probationary period; nor is one required for Baltimore, Maryland, or for experienced teachers in Minnesota outside the first-class cities.

The probationary period most favored is three years. At least 35 laws, state-wide or local in application, specify this period of service before granting tenure rights. In Connecticut, Ohio, and Kentucky, the required probationary periods are shortened for teachers who have had tenure in another district, while in Pennsylvania, tenure teachers need not serve another probationary period in a new district.

The majority of the laws require the superintendent to recommend the teacher for tenure status at the end of the probationary period. In some jurisdictions, however, tenure follows automatically where no notice of discharge is given at the end of the probationary period.

Causes for dismissal—Provisions concerned with legally sufficient causes for dismissal follow one of three general types. One enumerates specific causes; the second lists specific causes with the added phrase, "and for other good and just cause," or similar language; the third type provides merely for dismissal "for cause" with or without modifying words such as "good," "just," or "reasonable." In addition to these approaches, a few provisions fail to mention grounds for termination of employment of tenure teachers.

These differences in statutory language can result in varying interpretations by the courts, even where specific reasons for dismissal of a teacher may be the same. On the whole, tenure laws containing specific provisions on which dismissal of permanent teachers may legally be based provide greater protection against unfair dismissal than those which merely indicate dismissal for cause.

In litigation where the cause for dismissal has been an issue, courts usually have held that a school board may not dismiss teachers for reasons not included in the enumeration of causes. On the other hand, statutory provisions permitting discharge for cause without further elaboration or qualification leave the school board with wide discretionary powers as to what constitutes sufficient cause for dismissal of permanent teachers. Courts have held that any charge given by a school board in good faith satisfies the statutory requirement of cause for dismissal.

When the provisions dealing with causes for dismissal are compared, they reveal the following:

- For the most part, the statutes spell out the causes for dismissal, although at present, 12 tenure provisions contain no specific causes beyond the statutory language, "for cause," with or without the modifying adjectives, "good," "just," or "reasonable."

- While the grounds justifying dismissal vary widely from one law to the next, either in substance or in precise language, the most usual causes written into the laws, in order of frequency of appearance, are immorality or immoral conduct, incompetency, insubordination, inefficiency, persistent violation or refusal to obey school-board rules, and neglect of duty.

- Most tenure laws provide for dismissal due to such contingencies as reduced pupil enrollment, abolition of position, or reduction of teaching staff due to economies; a number of them outline the manner in which reductions in force and re-employment may take place, giving preference to teachers with seniority.

- Whether invoked or not, marriage of women teachers persists as a legal basis for dismissal in the tenure provisions governing three cities: Waterbury, Connecticut, and Wichita and Kansas City, Kansas. In contrast, tenure laws in Kentucky and Massachusetts expressly forbid dismissal on account of marriage.

Procedural rights—Essentially, protection of tenure teachers against unfair dismissal rests on statutory procedures as to notice, statement of charges, and hearing. The rights of teachers are more effectively protected by laws which outline the specific procedural steps required to be followed, including the conduct of the hearing.

The NEA Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom recommends a minimum of nine essentials to a proper and fair school-board hearing for inclusion in tenure laws which lack detailed procedures: (a) adequate notice and statement of charges, (b) presence of counsel, (c) testimony of witnesses under oath or affirmation, (d) right to subpoena witnesses, (e) restriction of evi-

dence to charges, (f) right to argument on evidence and law, (g) stenographic transcripts of evidence and argument, (h) consideration of evidence and argument by the entire school board, and (i) vote of at least a majority of the entire school board.

Not all the tenure laws measure up to these recommended minimums in all respects.

Where tenure laws prevail, dismissal of teachers who have acquired tenure status must follow the prescribed statutory procedures. Usual provisions require that notice of contemplated dismissal be given in advance of a hearing or in advance of dismissal. Most often, 30 days' advance notice must be given, but the period may be as short as 5 or 10 days, or as long as 45 days in some jurisdictions. Several laws require only that reasonable notice be given. Under some provisions, the notice must contain a statement of charges, while others entitle the teacher to request a statement of reasons for dismissal. Virtually every tenure law mandates that written notice be delivered to the teacher personally, or that it be sent by registered mail.

The more customary provision gives the teacher the right to request a hearing, although in some states a hearing must be held before discharge even without request. Commonly, too, the hearing must be held within a prescribed time limit, with the choice of public or private proceedings left to the teacher. Only a few laws expressly provide that the hearing must be confined to the charges on which dismissal is sought. The most usual specific provisions to be found are right of counsel and presence of witnesses, with testimony generally required to be under oath; the requirement that a transcript of the hearing be made is a feature contained in a number of the laws.

In many jurisdictions, the tenure laws permit teachers to appeal unfavorable decisions of local boards or higher educational authorities to the courts, although the scope of judicial review and the type of proceeding available are circumscribed by the controlling tenure provision. But even in those states where the statutes declare that local-board or higher administrative decisions are final, under common-law principles judicial appeal is not foreclosed where bad faith, fraud, or abuse of authority or discretion on the part of the school board is shown.

There appears to be little doubt that fair and equitable tenure legislation contributes to the security and certainty of employment of professionally qualified and competent teachers. Although great strides have been made in the past quarter century in securing effective tenure laws, legal safeguards to give teachers this security have yet to be enacted in the 13 states which have no tenure legislation. In other states, tenure laws need to be modified or strengthened so that their objectives are fully realized.

For details of tenure laws see: National Education Association. Research Division. *State-by-State Abstracts of Tenure Laws.* Research Memo 1960-32. Washington, D. C.: October 1960. Single copy free.

Class Size in Elementary Schools

A $4 billion problem

WHAT IS THE MAXIMUM acceptable size of a self-contained elementary-school class? When does it become "overcrowded"? What upper limits lead to the scheduling of half-day sessions for some elementary-school children?

These questions plague superintendents and boards of education in a great many schools, but answers must be found, if at all, in each local district. Among high schools the regional accrediting associations have exerted a meaningful influence upon class size. In institutions of higher education the weight of staff opinion is evident. But each local school system exercises wide latitude in determining the pupil load to be assigned to each elementary-school teacher.

True, the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association has adopted resolutions from time to time, but these expressions of professional judgment have not had the force or effect of official regulations.

In the open areas of the nation it is not uncommon to find small classes in operation. These conditions, however, are usually dictated by the travel requirements for a greater concentration of pupils, and the reluctance of small communities to give up their schools. Sometimes extremely small classes are maintained at a high per-pupil cost, but this is usually done for purely local reasons, rather than generally accepted educational policies. The enactment of state laws concerning the consolidation of school districts has left untouched many schools serving small numbers of children.

Study Limited to Urban Schools

Several thousand elementary-school classes operate with fewer than 15 pupils each, and many thousands contain fewer than 20 pupils each. In 1958-59, the average class in some 20,000 one-teacher schools consisted of 17 pupils. Since these conditions are dictated by local circumstances rather than by the determination of defensible educational standards, the Research Division's biennial study of elementary-school class size is limited to the *urban* school districts of the nation. To include the thousands of small classes operating in *rural* areas would tend to distort rather than to clarify the nationwide picture.

Here are some of the major findings on conditions in urban schools in the 1959-60 school year:

- In general, excessive overcrowding of elementary-school classes is most severe in the largest cities and in the Southeast.
- The median urban elementary-school class contains 30 pupils, with a range from 15 or fewer to 56 or more.

- Of some 91,000 classes in the 26 largest cities (500,000 and over in population), 87 percent contain more than 25 pupils each; 64 percent, more than 30 pupils each; 27 percent, more than 35 pupils each; and in 5 percent of these classes each teacher is responsible for more than 40 pupils.
- In all urban elementary schools combined, 71,000 pupils are in classes of more than 45 each; 380,000 are in classes of more than 40 each; and over 2 million pupils are in classes of 36 or more.
- About ⅓ million elementary-school pupils are restricted to half-day sessions.
- The overcrowding of classrooms and the assignment of elementary-school children to half-day sessions continue to reflect the inability of many districts to provide enough classrooms and teachers.

Table 1 presents a quick overview of conditions in urban elementary schools in 1959-60. Following the usual Research Division practice, the local districts are divided into six groups according to population. Of the 3631 districts operating elementary schools, the 26 largest contain about one-fifth of the 445,600 classes included in the study. Each of the next three groups has close to 100,000 classrooms. The two groups of smallest communities have only a small fraction of the classes.

Median Has Limited Meaning

Table 1 also shows the median and the average class size in each population group. While these summarizing figures describe the general situation, they do not give an accurate picture of any specific class. The median (or average) would provide enough information only if all classes were about the same size. But since less than 10 percent of the elementary-school classes in all urban districts are of any one size, it becomes necessary to examine the complete range of class sizes. Table 2 provides that information.

Almost 4500 classes contain fewer than 16 pupils each. In addition, 18,000 classes have 16 to 20 pupils each, and 53,000 have 21 to 24 pupils each. It is probable that a good majority of these 75,000 classes are in communities where it is administratively impractical to bring larger groups of children together.

Classes of exactly 25 pupils each total 23,000, about 5 percent of the total, although this is the figure that has been judged many times to be the optimum number when it is recognized that (a) the small immature child is not yet ready to assume a large measure of personal responsibility for his own guidance; (b) the elementary-school teacher,

1—ESTIMATED NUMBER OF CLASSES, MEDIAN AND AVERAGE CLASS SIZE, NOVEMBER 1959

Population of district (1957 population estimates)	Number of districts	Number of classes	Median class size	Average class size
I. 500,000 and over	26	91,418	32.9	32.0
II. 100,000 to 499,999	134	97,594	31.2	30.5
III. 30,000 to 99,999	505	96,983	29.1	28.6
IV. 10,000 to 29,999	1,307	100,542	28.8	28.2
V. 5,000 to 9,999	1,096	44,490	28.8	28.1
VI. 2,500 to 4,999	563	14,573	28.2	27.6
Total	3,631	445,600	30.2	29.5

with less formal preparation than her counterpart at any other teaching level, is least prepared to meet the diverse needs of a large group; and (c) the elementary-school teacher's task is exceedingly complex, covering all subject fields and requiring highly professional skill in the understanding and guidance of child development.

2—ESTIMATED NUMBER AND CUMULATIVE PERCENT OF URBAN ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL CLASSES BY SIZE, NOVEMBER 1959

Number of pupils per class	Number of classes	Cumulative percent of total
56 or more	290	0.065%
55	27	0.071
54	13	0.074
53	33	0.081
52	50	0.093
51	46	0.103
50	64	0.117
49	67	0.132
48	221	0.182
47	272	0.243
46	357	0.323
45	539	0.444
44	864	0.638
43	1,279	0.925
42	1,922	1.356
41	2,707	1.964
40	4,491	2.972
39	6,214	4.366
38	9,007	6.388
37	12,005	9.082
36	15,908	12.652
35	20,750	17.308
34	24,472	22.800
33	27,236	28.912
32	30,978	35.864
31	33,035	43.278
30	36,196	51.401
29	32,458	58.685
28	31,819	65.826
27	28,049	72.121
26	25,361	77.812
25	23,030	82.980
24	18,408	87.111
23	14,759	90.423
22	11,287	92.956
21	8,649	94.897
20	7,114	96.494
19	4,320	97.463
18	3,414	98.230
17	1,968	98.671
16	1,434	98.993
15 or fewer	4,487	100.000
Total	445,600	....

The current report shows that 154,000 classes are at the 26-30-pupil level. But in many schools local conditions have forced the administration to designate 30 as an acceptable upper limit of elementary-school class size. To reduce class size so as to achieve this standard is the announced goal of many superintendents.

Thus, here is the beginning of the problem for fully one-half of the children. In the 31-35 range are some 136,000 classes; 16,000 classes contain 36 pupils each; 12,000 contain 37 each; and in more than 9000 classes each teacher is responsible for 38 children.

But even here the upper limit is not reached. Classes containing 39 and 40 pupils exist to the total of more than 10,000; almost 7500 other classes have enrollments of 41 to 45; and nearly 1500 elementary-school classes are loaded with more than 45 children each. *These figures emphasize the limited meaning of average or median class size.*

District Size a Factor

One answer to the question, What factors influence class size? is *the size of the district.* Each of the four nationwide biennial studies by the Research Division has brought out the fact that a child's chances of having a fair share of his teacher's time and attention depend, in large measure, upon the size of the district he lives in. It is clear that the greater the population of the district, the smaller are his chances of receiving the individual attention of his teacher.

In the 26 largest districts (500,000 or more in population), 87 percent of the classes—with 91 percent of the

children—are larger than 25 each. In the next population size districts (100,000 to 499,999), 85 percent of the classes—with 89 percent of the children exceed the 25-pupil size. Group III (30,000 to 99,999 population) shows a modest step toward better conditions, but 74 percent of the classes—with 80 percent of the children—are still above the 25-pupil level. In the other three groups of districts, these percents of classes containing more than 25 children are 71, 71, and 65, respectively.

At the next, and equally significant level of comparison—classes with more than 30 pupils each—the difference according to population of the district stands out more clearly. In the 26 largest districts, 64 percent of the classes with 71 percent of the children are larger than 30 each. In Group II, just over half the classes, 52 percent, with 58 percent of the children, are above the 30-pupil mark. In Group III, these percents drop to 34 and 40; in Group IV the percents are 33 and 39; in Group V, 31 and 37; and in Group VI, only 30 and 37. The more-than-30-pupil level prevails in almost two-thirds of the classes in Group I, but in fewer than one-third of the classes in Group VI. The group-to-group decrease is uninterrupted from largest to smallest, again emphasizing the varying opportunities of the child according to the size of the school district in which he lives.

But the size-of-district variation stands out even more clearly when elementary-school classes of more than 35 each are considered. In Group I, 27 percent of the classes (containing 32 percent of the children) have 36 or more pupils each. In Group II, these percents drop almost one-half, to 14 and 17. In all four of the other population groups, the report shows that about 7 percent of the classes, with some 10 percent of the children, are of the more-than-35-pupil size.

In all urban districts combined, however, these classes of 36 pupils or more number more than 56,000 and contain more than 2,161,000 children. And at the most critical stage are no fewer than 8750 classes containing 380,000 children, each one of whom is a member of a class of *more than 40.*

For the 2½ million elementary-school children, each having 35 or more classmates, the "national average" has little meaning, indeed.

Regional Differences

The second answer to the question, What factors influence class size? is the *geographic region.* Among the 26 largest districts the classes of more than 25 pupils each include almost 97 percent of the children in the Middle region, and from 94 to 96 percent in the Northwest, Southeast, Southwest, and Far West, but this figure drops to 84 percent in the Middle Atlantic.

In the 134 Group II districts, the 25-to-1 ratio is exceeded for 93 percent of the children in the Southeast. At the other extreme is New England, with 76 percent. In the 505 Group III districts, the extremes are 91 percent in the Southeast and 72 percent in New England; in the 1307 Group IV districts, 91 percent in the Southeast and 70 percent in the Middle Atlantic and New England; in the 1096 Group V districts, 89 percent in the Southeast and 64 percent in the Northwest; and in the 563 Group VI districts, 89 percent in the Southeast but only 59 percent in the Northwest.

Wide variation among the regions is found when classes of more than 35 each are considered. Among the Group I districts the 36-to-40 classes include 47 percent of the children in the Middle region. In all five of the other population groups the Southeast condones classes of this size most frequently. Also, the classes containing more than

40 children each are to be found in operation most frequently in the Southeast in five of the six population groups.

The Price of Relief

Almost everywhere the educational leadership of the nation is in agreement that excessive size of elementary-school classes is one of the most serious threats to progress. One after another, the leading superintendents urge their boards of education to declare as a major goal the reduction of oversize classes to a designated maximum. Usually this suggested goal is 30, in the realization that a proposal for further reduction would imply staggering costs and might discourage any serious effort to reduce class size.

Everywhere, also, teachers and teacher groups are on record in declaring excessive class size as one of the chief roadblocks to effective work with the small children assigned to them.

What is the cost of relief from overcrowding? Here are the facts:

1. To reduce urban elementary-school classes in excess of 25 to that size would require an estimated 92,000 additional classrooms and teachers over the number in service in November 1959.

2. To reduce the classes in excess of 30 to that size would require more than 28,000 additional classrooms and teachers.

3. To reduce those in excess of 35 to that size calls for more than 5000 additions.

4. In 1959-60, an additional 92,000 classrooms would have represented some $3.7 billion in capital outlay and $500 million for teachers' salaries plus the cost of supporting services. Even 5000 additional classrooms and teachers would represent nearly a quarter of a billion dollars.

These requirements would fall most heavily, of course, on the largest urban centers and on districts of all sizes in the Southeast, but individual schools and school districts needing relief are scattered through the nation.

The chronic nature of the problem of overcrowding is due, in no small measure, to the difficulty of determining its long-term effects. Teachers, parents, and administrators agree on the long-term bad effects of overcrowding on the educational progress of the individual pupil. But the task of measuring and statistically demonstrating these long-term effects has not yet been

3—ESTIMATED NUMBER OF ADDITIONAL CLASSES (AND TEACHERS) NECESSARY TO REDUCE EXCESSIVE SIZE CLASSES, ALL URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS, NOVEMBER 1959

Population group	Total number of districts*	Estimated number of classes	Estimated number of additional classes (and teachers) necessary to reduce excessive size classes to				
			25 pupils	30 pupils	35 pupils	40 pupils	45 pupils
I. 500,000 and over	26	91,418	26,990	10,378	2,421	334	35
II. 100,000 to 499,999	134	97,594	22,891	7,043	1,182	128	22
III. 30,000 to 99,999	505	96,983	16,541	4,277	681	118	44
IV. 10,000 to 29,999	1,307	100,542	16,219	4,155	670	122	40
V. 5,000 to 9,999	1,096	44,490	7,160	1,827	316	38	3
VI. 2,500 to 4,999	563	14,573	2,223	610	115	22	6
Total	3,631	445,600	92,024	28,290	5,385	762	150

* Excludes school districts having secondary grades only.

achieved by research. And so, under the pressure of inadequate funds, millions of American children continue their schooling under this handicap.

Half-Day Sessions

The device most frequently used to reduce oversize classes is dividing them into half-day sessions. Almost ⅓ million elementary-school children were restricted to such limited instructional programs in 1959-60. One-half of the 26 districts in Group I resorted to this practice, with 119,000 children affected. Almost one-third of the 134 districts in Group II scheduled half-day classes for 92,000 children. In Group III, about 10 percent of the districts used this practice. But in Group IV only 6 percent, in Group V only 5 percent, and in Group VI only 2 percent of the districts cut the scheduled meeting time of any classes in half.

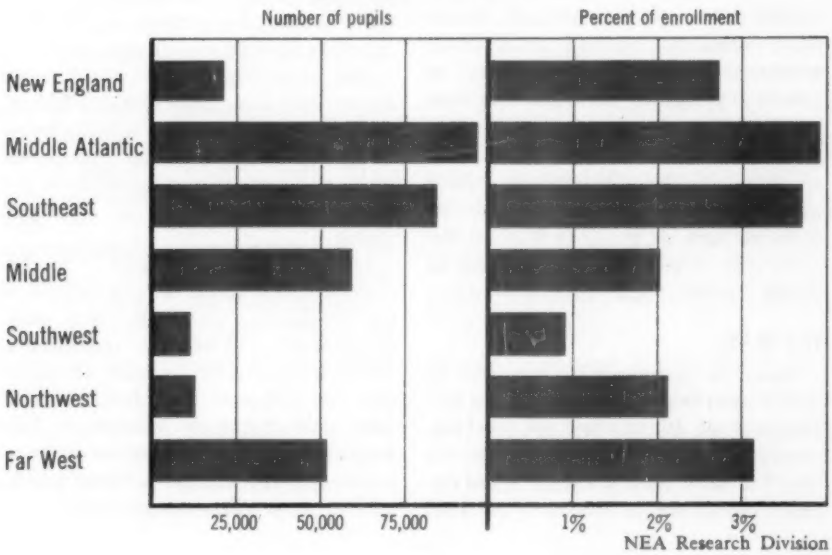
Fifteen percent of the districts in the Far West and 11 percent of those in New England divided elementary-school classes. But in the Far West the average class size in these districts was 32.2, while in New England an earlier readiness to use the half-day procedure is shown by the fact that the districts using it had an average class size of only 27.5.

In the Southeast, with 9 percent of the districts having half-day sessions, the average class size in these districts was 32.1, and in the Middle Atlantic region 8 percent of the districts used this practice, with an average class size of 31.4. But in the Middle region fewer than 4 percent of the districts split classes, although the average size in these districts was 34.4.

These differences point up the various ways in which local schools try to cope with constantly expanding enrollments and ever increasing demands upon their limited resources.

For details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Class Size in Urban Elementary Schools, 1959-60.* Research Report 1960-R10. Washington, D. C.: the Association, June 1960. 24 p. 50¢.

ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PUPILS IN HALF-DAY SESSIONS, NOVEMBER 1959



NEA Research Division

The role of the elementary school in fostering

International Understanding

THE IMPORTANCE of mutual understanding and concern in today's world is reflected by the trend in elementary schools to include in their programs materials designed to inculcate the basic principles of international understanding.

Questionnaires completed by the principals of 269 elementary schools revealed the following facts:

- Some orientation in international understanding can be provided through the work of almost every subject and in all grades, including kindergarten.
- Most attention upon foreign areas of the world is given in the sixth grade.
- The Western Hemisphere and Europe account for the greatest share of elementary study, followed by Africa, Asia, the Pacific, and the Polar Regions. Russia receives only 3.5 percent of the total study devoted to foreign areas.
- Local cultural differences can contribute to an understanding of foreign areas; similarly, learning about other countries increases understanding of minority groups in the local community.
- More than two-fifths of the responding schools offer instruction in at least one foreign language, some of them as early as grade 1; 9 in 10 believe that it makes a contribution to greater international understanding.

The Study

Since the questionnaire was sent to only a sampling of members of the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, and since the return was low, the facts elicited by the questionnaire cannot be considered typical of all public elementary schools. They do, however, indicate practices which are being used successfully in a considerable number of elementary schools. As such, they may constitute constructive guidelines for other schools.

Foreign Cultures

Within the limitations of state requirements, each school must make some basic decisions on the geographical areas of the world to be studied, and the proportion of the total time available to be given to each of them. It was found that about one-third of the total attention devoted to foreign cultures is given to the Western Hemisphere, exclusive of the United States, and approximately an equal amount to Europe, exclusive of Russia. Only 13 percent of the attention is given to Asia, only 9.5 percent to Africa, and a mere 4.5 and 1.5 percent to the Pacific areas and the Polar Regions, respectively. Russia receives only 3.5 percent of the total attention focused on foreign areas.

The organizations for world peace are of vital importance; yet one-fifth of the reporting elementary schools spend no time at all studying the United Nations, and more than one-fourth do not study the Organization of American States.

Of the various aspects of a foreign culture which could be emphasized in the classroom, geography was most frequently mentioned by respondents, followed closely by elements of everyday life. History and folklore were next most frequently mentioned. Less frequently mentioned were art, politics, economics, technology, religion, music, sports, and health and recreation.

Teaching Techniques

While almost every subject-matter area probably has something to contribute to the study of foreign lands and peoples, the social studies are the most frequently mentioned framework for such study; less than 1 percent of the respondents reported that their teachers make no use of social studies for these purposes. Three-fourths of them reported extensive use.

The second most common field of study for this purpose is music, used to some extent by 95 percent of all respondents, and to a considerable extent by one-third. Art courses are used extensively by one-quarter, and to a limited extent by about two-thirds.

Only 10 percent of the schools reported that no use is made of language arts in teaching about foreign peoples, while more than one-quarter indicated that they use such work extensively. Science classes are utilized least often for lessons in international understanding.

What may be done in any area, of course, depends largely on the materials available, which, even in the best-equipped schools, vary for the different parts of the world. For example, while more than three-fourths of the respondents said that they had adequate supplies of books on Europe, only 40.5 percent thought their books on Russia were adequate. With this single exception, for no geographical area did less than half the respondents find book supplies adequate, and almost all the rest indicated that they had some available, but that the supply was inadequate. Alarmingly, 8.8 percent of the respondents indicated no books at all available on Russia.

Maps are also of tremendous value in studying the world; it is heartening to note that for Canada, Central America, South America, and Europe, more than four-fifths of the schools evaluated their maps as adequate. Instances in which schools reported no maps at all available for a given area were negligible, with the exceptions of Russia and the Polar Regions, for which 7.4 and 5.7 percent of the schools had none.

Despite high current enthusiasm for visual aids, for no geographical area did more than 58.7 percent of the respondents feel that the available films were adequate. In fact, 8 percent still had no films at all on Europe, and more than one-fourth had none on Russia.

The Role of the Community

The differences among the people within a single community illustrate on a small scale those between the various peoples of the world. Thirty percent of the respondents reported that their own communities are homogeneous, and therefore lacking in striking cultural differences. But of the schools in the other 70 percent of the communities, 85 percent reported that at least some use is made of the differences among people within the community as a basis for teaching about international understanding.

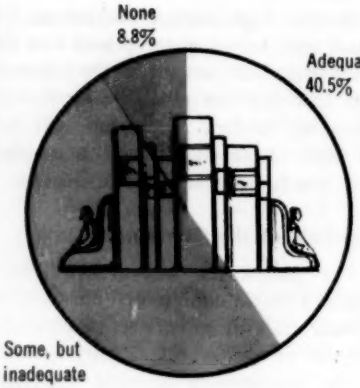
It is logical, too, that true understanding of other peoples should have an impact locally as well, in increasing understanding and appreciation of minority groups within the school community. Over 90 percent of the schools located in heterogeneous communities reported that the study of other countries does have this effect at home, and almost one-fourth indicated that much more understanding of local minority groups results.

Foreign-Language Teaching

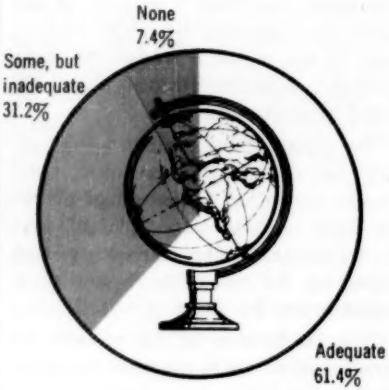
Recognizing the usefulness of beginning the study of foreign languages at an early age, 43.1 percent of the respondents reported that their schools presently offer at least one foreign lan-

TEACHING AIDS ON RUSSIA ARE LIMITED

4 schools in 10 have adequate books

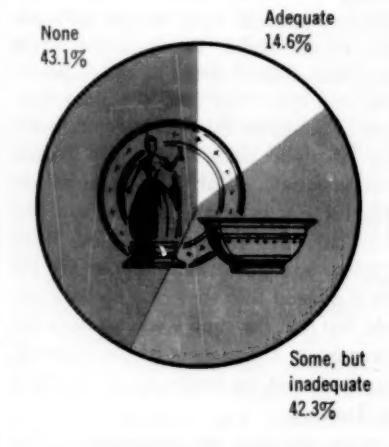


6 schools in 10 have adequate maps



Fewer than 3 schools in 10 have adequate films

1 school in 7 has adequate exhibit material



NEA Research Division

guage in at least one elementary grade. More than one language is taught in 8.2 percent of the respondent schools. A foreign language is much more commonly offered in larger schools than in smaller ones (the latter being defined as having fewer than 500 pupils), and the chances that two languages will be offered is about twice as great in the larger schools.

Many aspects of the culture can be brought into play in teaching a foreign language to elementary-school pupils. Games, songs, folk tales, and history are all utilized to roughly the same degree, followed by dances, geography, and dramatics. Nevertheless, at least one-third of the respondent schools offering foreign language seldom or never employ folk tales, dances, dramatics, history, or geography in the program, and more than one-third seldom or never use games. Songs are the most widely used of these devices; only 3.7 percent reported that they are seldom or never used.

Almost one-quarter of the schools plan to add a foreign language to their curriculum during the next two or three years, and 5.9 percent are discussing the possibility of such a step. Spanish was the most frequently mentioned language (9.7 percent), followed by French (5.1 percent) and German (1.5 percent). Russian was mentioned by only one school.

The Personal Touch

A teacher who has personally traveled to one or more foreign areas of the world may be expected to bring to his teaching a sympathy and understanding which might be hard to achieve in any other way. In fact, 94 percent of the respondents indicated that at least one teacher in the school had traveled in a foreign country. The total was highest for Canada, as might be expected; 82.3 percent of the schools reported some teacher travel to Canada. In addition, teacher travel to Central America was reported by 57.9 percent of the respondent schools, and to South America, by 16.2 percent.

Although almost two-thirds of the schools have at least one teacher who has made a trip to Europe, only 1.5 percent have persons with firsthand knowledge of Russia. Even the Polar Regions were more frequently reported.

Of the 4815 teachers on the staffs of the respondent schools, about one-third have traveled to Canada, and more than one-tenth to Central America. Almost 10 percent have been to Europe.

Elementary-school pupils also have personal contributions to make to the study of foreign areas. In 57.4 percent of the respondent schools, the pupils themselves contribute from their own personal experience to the study of Europe; in 50.9 percent, to the study of Central America; and in 47.0 percent, to the study of Canada. More schools reported that the pupils contributed from their personal experience to the study of Russia (7.4 percent) than reported teacher travel to that country (1.5 percent). *Personal contribution* was defined on the questionnaire as including bringing in materials for class examination and correspondence with a foreign Pen-Pal.

Faced with the world's imperative need for international understanding, America's schools must inevitably shoulder a large part of the responsibility for its development within our own shores. The findings of this study indicate that they are rising to the challenge with determination and creativity, but much remains to be done.

For details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Teaching About Other Countries and People in the Elementary School.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, June 1960. 37 p. 60¢. Available from the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA.

NEA RESEARCH BULLETIN

October 1960

MR STEVENS RICE
UNIVERSITY MICROFILMS
313 NORTH FIRST ST
ANN ARBOR MICH COMP RBS